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811 **Pea cultivar and wheat residues affect carbon/nitrogen dynamics in pea-triticale**
812 **intercropping: a microcosms approach**

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822

823 **Abstract**

824 The underlying mechanisms by which legume cultivars contribute to nitrous oxide (N₂O) generation
825 are poorly understood. The aim of the present study was to explore the effects of two pea cultivars
826 (Zero4 and Nitouche) intercropped with triticale, with or without wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) residues
827 incorporation, on soil C and N dynamics, on bacterial community structure and their links with N₂O
828 emissions. Monocrops and bare soil (no plant) treatments were used as an additional control in order
829 to account for the level of mineralisation between treatments. Changes in total C and N contents and
830 in some functionally-related soil pools (microbial biomass C and N, basal respiration, KCl-
831 exchangeable ammonium and nitrate, potentially mineralizable N, DOC, ecophysiological indexes)
832 were followed throughout a 97-day microcosm experiment carried out on a loamy arable soil.
833 ARISA community fingerprinting of soil extracted DNA and GHG emissions were carried out at
834 two key stages (pea flowering and harvest). The addition of residues to the soil resulted in only small
835 changes to the total C and N pools the Nitouche monocrop, which was found to have the highest
836 potentially mineralisable N (13.4 µg g⁻¹ 28d⁻¹) of the treatments with added residue. The different
837 pea cultivar selectively affected N₂O emissions, with highest emissions associated with the cultivar
838 Nitouche in the absence of residues. The two intercropping treatments of triticale/pea were
839 significantly different either with residues or without, especially the triticale/Zero 4 which had the
840 lowest values (356 g N₂O-N ha⁻¹). Similar patterns were also observed in below ground data. ARISA
841 analysis showed that monocropped legumes and the Triticale-based treatment clearly grouped on
842 separate clusters to the added residue treatment. We hypothesize that in pea-based intercrops
843 variations in carbon supply from different cultivars may contribute to differences in N₂O emissions
844 and thus influence the choice of suitable cultivars, to optimize nutrient cycling and sustainable crop
845 management.

846 **Keywords**

847 bacterial community structure, C and N pools, N₂O emissions, pea-based intercropping, wheat
848 residues

849 **Introduction**

850 Legume cropping offers opportunities to reduce GHG emissions from agriculture through their
851 ability to substitute inputs of mineral fertilisers with biologically fixed N (Rochette *and* Janzen
852 2005). However, legumes differ widely in the their contribution to N₂O emissions and in some cases
853 (particularly following residue incorporation) can still remain a significant source (Baggs *et al.*,
854 2000; Bouwman *et al.*, 2002). The cultivation of leguminous crops in agricultural systems can not
855 only contribute to reducing the emission of nitrous oxide (N₂O) but also increases the release and
856 the turnover of mineralisable N-containing compounds in soil (Rochette *and* Janzen 2005; Jensen *et*
857 *al.*, 2010). Their ability to add external N to the plant-soil system is a distinct benefit on which crop
858 production systems can rely on in order to maintain the soil N supply at a sustained productive level
859 (Watson *et al.*, 2011). The amount of biologically fixed N supplied by legumes varies greatly from
860 tens to several hundred kilograms per ha per year and is strongly affected by the type and
861 environmental conditions (nitrate availability, temperature, soil wetness, and the availability of
862 other nutrients).

863 Although symbiotic Rhizobium is believed to be able to produce N₂O in root nodules there is a
864 conflicting evidence regarding the magnitude of this process. In their early work, O'Hara and
865 Daniel (1985) suggested that rhizobial microorganisms are directly involved in the production of
866 N₂O by reduction of NO₃ occurring within the root nodules. However, it is likely that Rhizobium
867 species are not directly involved in the N₂O production process, and that the root microflora also
868 plays an important role. Okubo *et al.* (2009) have shown that the rhizosphere community structure
869 is significantly influenced by plant species and cultivar. It is also likely that this community
870 structure is influenced by environmental conditions. It has been shown that different nodulation
871 phenotypes contain different bacterial and fungal profiles in the stems and roots (Ikeda *et al.*, 2008).
872 However, the extent to which these phenotypes are associated with different emissions is unclear. In
873 the case of legumes, it has been suggested that N₂O emission is primarily associated with
874 decomposition and turnover of root nodules (Inaba *et al.*, 2009), which implies that differences in
875 the community structure and activity of root surface microorganisms may be responsible.

876 Understanding the contribution of legumes to N₂O emissions in the wider environment is highly
877 dependent on developing an improved understanding of the underlying microbiology of the system
878 (Philippot *et al.*, 2002). Many studies have been conducted involving legume based cropping
879 systems especially placed in intercroops or the growing of two or more species together at one time,
880 since, legume-based intercropping is able to provide several agro-ecological services: a more
881 efficient use of soil resources for plant growth due to a reduced competition for soil N (Hauggaard-
882 Nielsen *et al.*, 2003; Knudsen *et al.*, 2004; Hauggaard-Nielsen and Jensen, 2005), an increased
883 water and nutrient use efficiency (Hauggaard-Nielsen *et al.*, 2009a), a greater yield stability and
884 higher N concentration in cereal grain (Hauggaard-Nielsen *et al.*, 2006, 2009b), a better control of
885 soil erosion (Inal *et al.*, 2007), and an enhanced weed suppression and pest control (Liebman and
886 Dyck, 1993; Corre-Hellou *et al.*, 2011). Moreover, reduced N₂O emissions from soil (Pappa *et al.*,
887 2011) were also shown in leguminous intercroops. One more justification for intercropping
888 (especially pea-based) is the increased mineral N made available in the soil for the following crop
889 (Pappa *et al.*, 2011; Scalise *et al.*, 2015). Finally, the legume cultivar has been shown to play an
890 important role in the cumulative N₂O emissions of the agricultural systems, which also affects the
891 product intensities (Pappa *et al.*, 2011), which are all the emissions divided by all saleable outputs.

892 The aim of this study was to explore the mechanisms responsible for N₂O emissions from two
893 legume species demonstrated by Pappa *et al.* (2011) by monitoring a number of soil chemical (pH;
894 EC; C_{org}; Nt; NH₄⁺-N; NO₃⁻-N; DOC), biochemical (MBC; R_{bas}; C₀, potentially mineralisable C;
895 MBC/C_{org}; *q*M, mineralisation coefficient; *q*CO₂; *q*CO₂/C_{org} ratio; MBN; PMN, potentially
896 mineralisable N) variables together with the bacterial community structure
897 by ARISA fingerprinting of soil extracted DNA, and GHGs emissions (N₂O, CH₄, CO₂) in an
898 arable soil as by a microcosms approach.

899 The present study tested the following three hypotheses: a) legume-based cropping systems and
900 wheat residue incorporation can stimulate soil C and N cycling through the enhancement of the
901 below-ground nutrient flow, b) GHG emissions from legume-based intercropping can be altered by

soil addition of wheat residues and c) even when showing a similar yield potential, the cultivar of a same leguminous species can selectively influence the soil processes including the bacterial community structure conditioned by the legume intercrop.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Soil type and plant material

The soil used in the microcosm experiment was a loam collected from the Ap horizon (0-30 cm) of an agricultural field cultivated under continuous winter wheat and located at the Bush Estate, Edinburgh, Scotland (55°52'17.46" N, 3°12'24.27" W). The main soil properties were: sand 42%, silt 34%, clay 24%; bulk density $1.2 \pm 0.1 \text{ kg dm}^{-3}$; $\text{pH}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ 6.19 ± 0.04 ; total organic C (C_{org}) $34.27 \pm 1.22 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$; total N (N_t) $2.52 \pm 0.08 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$; C:N ratio 13.62 ± 0.20 ; $\text{NH}_4^+ - \text{N}$ $3.75 \pm 0.40 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$; $\text{NO}_3^- - \text{N}$ $7.64 \pm 0.50 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$; Olsen P $18.2 \pm 0.4 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$; extractable K $202.0 \pm 0.3 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$; electric conductivity measured in a soil:water (1:2, w/v) mixture ($\text{EC}_{1:2}$ at 25°C) $0.10 \pm 0.01 \text{ dS m}^{-1}$. Following the winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) harvest (September 2011), residual straw was chopped to 2-4 mm and stored before being used for soil amendment. The soil for filling the microcosms was collected before starting the experiment (3rd October 2011), coarse sieved at < 4.7-mm particle size and brought to approximately 30% gravimetric water content. Seeds of two cultivars of spring pea (*Pisum sativum* L. cv. Nitouche and *Pisum sativum* L. cv. Zero4) were provided by PGRO (UK); seeds of triticale (*Triticum aestivum* L. x *Triticosecale* Wittm.) were provided by APSOVSEMENTI s.p.a. (Pavia, I).

2.2 Experimental set-up

The microcosm study was carried out at Scotland's Rural College (SRUC), in Edinburgh, between October 2011 and February 2012. Microcosm units consisted of 2.12 L polyvinyl chloride (PVC) pipes (25 cm height, 10.4 cm internal diameter) that had been closed at the base with an air-tight seal using a sheet of Plexiglas[®]. A sampling point for the gas collection (a three-way tap) was placed at 23 cm depth from the surface of the microcosm. Microcosms were filled either with soil

(no residue addition) (unamended) or with a soil plus chopped wheat straw (400:1, w/w) mixture (corresponding to a 6.3 t ha⁻¹ addition rate at a field scale) (wheat residue addition) (amended).

The amount of soil needed was calculated by taking into account the microcosm volume (1867.92 cm³), the soil bulk density and the gravimetric water content in order to reach a water-filled pore space (WFPS) equal to 28-32% that provides optimum conditions for biological activity in soil (FAO, 2001). WFPS was kept constant during the growing season by watering with a N-free artificial rainwater (Palmqvist and Dahlman, 2006) in order to maintain suitable conditions for plant growth and microbial processes without providing an external N addition.

Soon after filling (7th October 2011), each microcosm, four seeds were initially sown but only two plants, of the same species or one of each intercrop components, were kept after successful seed germination. For each level of soil amendment, the following six treatments compared different combinations of leguminous intercrops and the respective sole crop: i) Nitouche: monocrop of pea cv. Nitouche; ii) Zero4: monocrop of pea cv. Zero4; iii) Triticale: monocrop of Triticale; iv) Nitouche-Triticale: intercrop pea cv. Nitouche-Triticale; v) Zero4-Triticale: intercrop pea cv. Zero4-Triticale and vi) bare soil: unplanted microcosms were used as a control.

Since the scheduled samplings were destructive, the whole experiment was duplicated, giving a total of 72 microcosms: (6 treatments) x (2 levels of amendment) x (2 samplings) x (3 replicates). The microcosms were randomly arranged in a growth chamber and grown for a 97-day growing period under controlled climatic conditions, as shown in Table 1.

2.3 Soil sampling and analysis

Soil samples were collected at three sampling times: at the beginning (pre-sowing), at pea flowering (62 days after sowing (DAS)) and at the pods filling pea stage (97 DAS), when the microcosms were destructively sampled for soil and plant collection. Each microcosm provided one rhizosphere sample (two samplings) and one bulk soil sample (three samplings). The rhizosphere soil was taken from the plant roots after the bulk of the soil had been removed. The rhizosphere soil was used for the molecular analysis and the bulk soil was used for the chemical and biochemical

953 characterization.

954 Soil chemical properties were determined according to standards methods recommended by the
955 Soil Science Society of America (Sparks, 1996). Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) was extracted
956 with water (1:2 w/v, soil:water) after shaking (170 rpm, 30 min) at room temperature. The soil
957 slurries were then centrifuged (4300 rpm, 10°C, 10 min) and the recovered supernatant was filtered
958 through a 0.45 µm Whatman GF/F membrane. DOC in the clean extract was finally measured using
959 an automated elemental OC analyzer (Rosemount-Dohrmann DC-80) (Jones *et al.*, 2005) using a
960 perchlorate oxidation followed by detection of CO₂ by NIR spectroscopy. Inorganic-N (NO₃⁻-N and
961 NH₄⁺-N) was extracted with 1 M KCl (1:5, w/v, soil:solution) after shaking (220 rpm, 60 min) at
962 24°C. After the extraction, the soil slurries were centrifuged (4300 rpm, 10 min) and the clean
963 supernatants recovered and stored at -20°C before analysis. Inorganic N was determined using a
964 continuous flow auto-analyser (SKALAR San⁺⁺, BV, NL).

965 Microbial biomass C (MBC) and N (MBN) were determined following a chloroform
966 fumigation-extraction (CFE) procedure according to Vance *et al.* (1987) and Brookes *et al.* (1985).
967 MBC was estimated using a conversion factor of $K_{EC} = 0.45$ (Joergensen, 1996) and MBN was
968 estimated using a conversion factor of $K_{EN} = 0.54$ (Joergensen and Mueller, 1996). Soil basal
969 respiration was estimated by measuring CO₂ emissions in sealed 1.5 L jars containing 20 g (dw
970 equivalent) soil samples and incubated in the dark at 24 °C. Gas samples were collected in pre-
971 evacuated 22 ml vials and analysed by gas chromatography (Sparling, 1981). The cumulative CO₂-
972 C evolved after a 28-day incubation period (gas sampling was carried out after 1, 4, 7, 14, 21 and 28
973 days) was assumed as R_{bas}. The potentially mineralisable C (C₀) was estimated by fitting the 28-day
974 cumulative data to the first-order exponential function $C_t = C_0 (1 - e^{-kt})$ (Riffaldi *et al.*, 1996). The best
975 fitting of the equation to the values experimentally obtained and estimates of C₀ and k parameters
976 for each curve of basal respiration were obtained by non-linear regression analysis using the
977 Levenburg-Marquardt algorithm (Table Curve 2D v 5.01 software, SYSTAT software Inc.).
978 Potentially mineralisable N (PMN), resulting from net mineralization of active soil organic N

979 occurring during the 28-day incubation period for R_{bas} determination, was estimated as the
980 cumulative inorganic soil N after 28 days *minus* the inorganic soil N at 0 day (Drinkwater *et al.*,
981 1996). The following soil eco-physiological indices were then calculated: the microbial quotient
982 ($\text{MBC}/C_{\text{org}}$), the metabolic quotient ($q\text{CO}_2$), the mineralization coefficient ($q\text{M}=R_{\text{bas}}/C_{\text{org}}$) and the
983 $q\text{CO}_2/C_{\text{org}}$ ratio (Dilly *et al.*, 2001; Mocali *et al.*, 2009).

984 DNA extraction from both rhizosphere and bulk soil were undertaken by ball milling samples to
985 achieve physical lysis followed by a CTAB-buffer extraction method as described by Brierley *et al.*
986 (2009). DNA extracts were purified from any humic acids by passing them through micro Bio-spin
987 columns loaded with polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP). DNA yield and quality were quantified by a
988 spectrophotometer (ND-1000). Automated ribosomal intergenic spacer analysis (ARISA) was
989 carried with an end-point PCR technique using the primer system 1406f (5'-
990 TGYACACACCGCCCGT-3') and 23Sr (5'-GGGTTBCCCCATTCRG-3'). The PCR reaction
991 mixture was prepared with GoTaq[®] Green Master Mix (Promega), 2 μl of template DNA (ca 20 ng),
992 0.5 μM of each primer, and sterile deionised water to a final volume of 25 μl . In the negative
993 control, the tDNA was substituted with the same volume of nuclease-free water (Promega). PCR
994 running conditions started with a single denaturation step of 94 °C for 3 min, to activate the
995 HotStart enzyme, followed by 29 thermal cycles consisting of a denaturation step at 94 °C for 45 s,
996 an annealing step at 55 °C for 1 min, and an elongation step at 72 °C for 2 min, followed by a final
997 primer extension at 72 °C for 7 min and cooling to 4 °C. Capillary electrophoresis with peaks
998 ranging from 50-bp to 1,050-bp was carried out using an DNA 7500 assays on the Agilent 2100
999 Bioanalyzer (Analysis Software 2100, Agilent Technologies, Böblingen, D) according to
1000 manufacturer instructions. Electropherograms were imported into BioNumerics[®] 7.0 software
1001 package (AppliedMaths, Sint-Martens-Latem, B) as a 2D gel image for further analysis.

1002

1003 2.4 Greenhouse gas monitoring

1004 Emissions of N_2O , carbon dioxide (CO_2) and methane (CH_4) from the microcosm units were

1005 measured following three gas sampling strategies: soil surface emissions, deep layer emissions (23
1006 cm) and respiration from roots. Surface gas monitoring started 12 days after sowing and was
1007 repeated (twice a week) across the entire experimental period by using the closed chamber
1008 technique (Smith *et al.*, 1995). During the gas emission measurements, the microcosms were
1009 covered by a 26-cm-tall chamber for 40-60 minutes before collecting 40 ml gas samples in a
1010 portable pre-evacuated 22-ml-glass vial (Scott *et al.*, 1999). For baseline corrections two air
1011 samples from the growing chamber atmosphere were collected at each sampling time. Gas sampling
1012 from deep soil layers started 38 days after sowing (14th November 2011) to allow time for the roots
1013 to grow throughout the microcosm and was repeated twice a week for three weeks. Gaseous
1014 emissions from legume roots collected after the microcosm destructive sampling (see below) were
1015 measured as described by Inaba *et al.* (2009). Shortly after the harvest, unwashed legume roots were
1016 placed into a 320 ml air-tight glass jars; 0 and 10 min after sealing, a 40-ml-gas sample was
1017 collected from the glass jar and immediately transferred in a pre-evacuated 22 ml glass vial. All gas
1018 samples were stored (maximum 1 day) in a controlled temperature room before any analysis.
1019 Amounts of N₂O, CO₂ and CH₄ of collected air samples were analyzed using an Agilent 6890 gas
1020 chromatograph equipped with a 1.8 m Propak-N column and an electron capture detector (for N₂O)
1021 and flame ionisation detector (for CH₄). Certified high purity gas standards of known concentration
1022 were used for calibration. The conversion of peak areas to daily gaseous emissions was carried out
1023 in accordance with standard procedures (de Kleine *and* Harvey, 2013). In addition, greenhouse gas
1024 emission intensities were expressed per unit of product (all emissions divided by all saleable
1025 outputs. Also the Global Warming Potential (GWP) of each gas was calculated using coefficients of
1026 1 for CO₂, 25 for CH₄ and 298 for N₂O.

1027 2.5 Plant sampling and analysis

1028 At pea flowering (62 DAS) and pod filling (97 DAS), the microcosms were destructively
1029 sampled, plants were gently removed from the microcosm soil and separated into shoot and root
1030 fractions. Shoot fresh weight was immediately recorded, whereas the root system was initially used

1031 for measuring the N₂O emissions (legumes only). The above ground biomass results were used for
1032 the emission intensities calculations.

1033 2.6 Statistics

1034 Soil variables were firstly checked for deviations from normality (Shapiro Wilk's test) and
1035 homogeneity of within-group variances (Levene's test). The block effect in the experimental design
1036 was not significant ($P > 0.05$) and the data were subjected to the following statistical analyses. A
1037 three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) (treatment (T) x amendment (A) x time (Ti)), indicated in
1038 Figs. 1, 2 and 4 and in Table 2 as F -values and corresponding P -values, was performed in order to
1039 highlight the main effect of sampling time, crops, level of amendment and their interactions on
1040 measured soil variables. Significant effects due to treatment (T), amendment (A), and their
1041 interaction presented in Tab. 4 were estimated by a two-way ANOVA. Multiple pairwise
1042 comparison of means were assessed by Tukey's HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) test at $P <$
1043 0.05 level of significance. Chemical and biochemical data were also analysed by principal
1044 component analysis (PCA) with no rotation with data from three different stages (pre-sowing,
1045 flowering and harvest) (Table 3 and 4). Statistical analyses were run using the Systat 11.0 software
1046 (SYSTAT Software Inc., Erkrath, D). Graphs were drawn by using the SigmaPlot 10.0 software
1047 (SYSTAT Software Inc.). Dendrograms of hierarchical classification of ARISA profiles were
1048 generated by cluster analysis using the unweighed pair-group method with arithmetic averages
1049 (UPGMA) based on Dice similarity coefficient as suggested by Rademaker *et al.* (1999).

1050 3. Results

1051 3.1 Soil C pools

1052 Soil carbon pools showed variable responses to the addition of plant residues and the presence of
1053 different crop cultivars during the experiment. The addition of wheat residues in the microcosm
1054 soils caused some significant reductions in the amount of the total organic carbon (C_{org}) (Table 2),
1055 although residue incorporation affected the C_{org} differently in treatments over time. In particular, in

1056 unamended soils, C_{org} values remained close to the initial values; whereas following wheat residue
1057 addition, a contrasting affect was observed in C_{org} content between monocropped treatments were
1058 found to have the highest C_{org} concentrations. In bare soil C_{org} slightly declined, whereas it
1059 remained practically unaffected in amended ones.

1060 Dissolved organic carbon (DOC) varied in response to residue addition levels and sampling
1061 stages (Fig. 1). The presence of the intercrops increased the concentrations of DOC at harvest.
1062 Without residues addition, no significant difference was observed between treatments at any
1063 sampling stage; whereas following wheat residue addition the Zero4 treatment showed a significant
1064 increase ($P < 0.001$) from pre-sowing ($36.9 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$) to harvest ($64.1 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$). On average, DOC
1065 increased over time from an initial value of 33.2 (or 37.3) to 48.2 (or 50.5) $\mu\text{g g}^{-1}$ in unamended (or
1066 amended) microcosms soil, including the bare soil which showed an increasing trend over time.

1067 In unamended microcosms, mean soil basal respiration, R_{bas} , values were higher than pre-
1068 sowing at both flowering and harvest stage (respectively 778.9 and harvest 807.4 $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{-C g}^{-1} 28 \text{ d}^{-1}$
1069 ¹) and there was no significant effect due to the crop treatment (Fig. 1). However, residue
1070 amendment strongly influenced ($P < 0.05$) the CO_2 emission of treatments at the harvest stage,
1071 which ranged between 553.5 (bare soil) and 1042.6 $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{-C g}^{-1} 28 \text{ d}^{-1}$ (Nitouche monocropping):
1072 the Nitouche solo crop showed higher basal respiration than those at beginning of the experiment
1073 (from 721.7 to 1042.6 $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{-C g}^{-1} 28 \text{ d}^{-1}$), whereas in the bare soil R_{bas} decreased by
1074 approximately 20% (from 664.6 to 553.5 $\mu\text{g CO}_2\text{-C g}^{-1} 28 \text{ d}^{-1}$). Estimates of the potentially
1075 mineralisable carbon (C_0) followed the same general trend as those of R_{bas} , even though some of the
1076 experimental factors lost their significance (Fig. 1). It is noteworthy that C_0 displayed a time-
1077 dependent fluctuation with particularly high C mineralization from Triticale (differing from R_{bas})
1078 and Nitouche monocrops.

1079 Microbial biomass carbon (MBC) was strongly affected by treatments with statistically
1080 significant responses to all the experimental factors (Fig. 1). In general the MBC increased during
1081 the cropping season, in spite of residue amendment: from an initial 79.0 (or 75.5) to final 191.4 (or

243.6) $\mu\text{g C g}^{-1}$ in unamended (or amended) soil microcosms. In soils with no wheat residue addition, MBC showed a large increase in the presence of legume-based treatments either in monocropped - from mean initial 79.1 to final 209.3 $\mu\text{g C g}^{-1}$ (approximately +265%) - or intercropped legumes - from initial 75.5 to final 233.8 $\mu\text{g C g}^{-1}$ (approximately +310%). An opposite affect was observed in residue amended soils: the MBC increase was generally lower under intercropping (+290%) than in monocropping (+390%) as compared with the starting value of 75.7 $\mu\text{g C g}^{-1}$.

3.2 Soil N pools

Time and time x amendment were the only factors that significantly affected the variability of total nitrogen content (N_t) in microcosms soils (Table 2). In fact, N_t content decreased across the 97-day experimental period with differing trends, but reaching similar values at the harvest stage (2.09 and 2.01 g kg^{-1} for unamended and amended, respectively) (data not shown). Across the experimental period, the extractable NH_4^+ -N did not differ significantly in any of the treatments (Fig. 2); however, the amount of soil nitrate showed marked time-dependent fluctuations and was significantly different among treatments ($P < 0.001$). Crop growth markedly affected the dynamics of soil nitrate-N, which became greatly depleted at the flowering stage in all planted microcosms. An increased release of nitrate was observed at the latest stage, also mirrored by a decline in the ammonium-N content, yet regulated by the decaying wheat residues (Fig. 2).

The potentially mineralisable nitrogen (PMN) was affected by all the experimental factors and their interactions (Fig. 2). In general, PMN demonstrated a clear decrease from pre-sowing onward. At the flowering stage, PMN in the bare soil treatment was significantly higher ($P < 0.01$) than the treatments with no residue addition. It was noteworthy that, at the harvest stage, PMN was significantly affected by residue amendment, even though at a different level ($P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.001$, respectively). Specifically, Nitouche monocropping increased the PMN by three times from the flowering stage reaching the highest value of 13.4 $\mu\text{g g}^{-1} 28\text{d}^{-1}$ in microcosms packed without addition of wheat residues. All the remaining cropping treatments showed a small non-significant

1108 increase, but the bare soil retained similar values ($10.81 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} 28 \text{ d}^{-1}$). Further, in amended soils,
1109 there was a significant increase in the Triticale - Zero4 intercropping from the flowering ($5.8 \mu\text{g g}^{-1}$
1110 28 d^{-1}) to the harvest stage ($12.3 \mu\text{g g}^{-1} 28 \text{ d}^{-1}$).

1111 All experimental factors and their interactions statistically influenced the microbial biomass N
1112 ($P < 0.001$). In unamended microcosms, MBN moderately (intercrops) or strongly (monocrops)
1113 increased over time, with the exception of the bare soil treatment where it decreased from the
1114 beginning of the experimental period ($14.6 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$) by approx. 40% (from 14.6 to $8.8 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$). In
1115 contrast, in residue amended soils, the unplanted soil showed MBN values statistically comparable
1116 to other cropping treatments: as a whole MBN increased by approx. 70%, from initial 17.0 to final
1117 $28.8 \mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$ (Fig. 2).

1118 *3.3 Soil ecophysiological indices and C-to-N ratios*

1119 The mineralization coefficient (qM) was statistically influenced by the amendment level ($P <$
1120 0.001), time ($P < 0.001$) and their interactions (Fig. 3). In unamended soils, the mineralization
1121 coefficient values showed a slight increase, on average from $16.79 \mu\text{g CO}_2\text{-C mg}^{-1} \text{C}_{\text{org}}$ (pre-sowing
1122 stage) to $24.35 \mu\text{g CO}_2\text{-C mg}^{-1} \text{C}_{\text{org}}$ (harvest sampling). In microcosms added with wheat residues,
1123 it showed an opposite trend for Zero4, Triticale and bare soil, which showed the major decline
1124 (from $25.14 \mu\text{g CO}_2\text{-C mg}^{-1} \text{C}_{\text{org}}$ to $18.80 \mu\text{g CO}_2\text{-C mg}^{-1} \text{C}_{\text{org}}$).

1125 The metabolic quotient ($q\text{CO}_2$) was significantly ($P < 0.001$) affected only by time, level of soil
1126 amendment and their interaction (Fig. 3). Microcosms at both level of amendment showed a
1127 decrease in the values of the $q\text{CO}_2$ towards the end of the experiment, which was stronger in the
1128 amended soil due to the higher average values it showed in the pre-sowing stage (1.11 and $2.57 \mu\text{g}$
1129 $\text{CO}_2\text{-C mg}^{-1} \text{MBC d}^{-1}$ respectively for unamended and amended). The largest decrease was
1130 registered in the Nitouche pure culture (from 2.69 to $0.19 \mu\text{g CO}_2\text{-C mg}^{-1} \text{MBC d}^{-1}$). The $q\text{CO}_2/\text{C}_{\text{org}}$
1131 ratio was also statistically influenced by time ($P < 0.001$), level of soil amendment ($P < 0.001$) and
1132 their interactions (Fig. 3). However, in amended microcosms, the $q\text{CO}_2/\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ ratio clearly decreased
1133 in all treatments from pre-sowing to harvest stage.

The microbial quotient ($\text{MBC}/\text{C}_{\text{org}}$) was strongly ($P < 0.001$) affected by all the experimental factors (Fig. 3). $\text{MBC}/\text{C}_{\text{org}}$ varied consistently during the experimental period and showed a marked increase at the harvest stage in all treatments at both amendment levels. The bare soil treatment always showed the lowest value within each sampling time, reaching its minimum at the flowering stage in residue amended microcosms ($2.09 \mu\text{g MBC mg}^{-1} \text{C}_{\text{org}}$).

3.4 Soil pH and electrical conductivity

The three-way ANOVA revealed that wheat residue addition was the main factor affecting the variability of pH data ($P < 0.001$), which were generally higher in the amended soil (Table 2). There were also a time-dependent fluctuations ($P < 0.01$) together with significant effects of the amendment x time, and amendment x time x treatment interactions ($P < 0.001$). However, the pH varied between a narrow range comprised between 6.12 (unamended bare soil at flowering) and 6.37 (amended triticale at flowering), and significant differences among treatments were only noticed at the flowering and the harvest stages in the unamended soil with the Nitouche monocrop and bare soil having, respectively, the highest (6.39) and the lowest value (6.10).

The electrical conductivity ($\text{EC}_{1:2}$) varied between 0.10 and 0.18 dS m^{-1} and was significantly affected by most of the experimental factors and their interactions (Table 2). It was noticeable that the triticale-based treatments showed higher $\text{EC}_{1:2}$ values than the leguminous sole treatments at both flowering and harvest stages: this finding was only observed in unamended, but not in the amended microcosms, and this was especially true for all crop-based treatments where EC remained almost constant over time. In the bare soil, the lowest EC was found in unamended treatments ($\sim 0.10 \text{ dS m}^{-1}$); whereas following wheat residues addition it increased considerably at flowering and harvest stage, respectively to 0.18 and 0.15 dS m^{-1} .

3.5 Multivariate analysis

According to the eigenvalue > 1.0 criterion only five principal components could be selected. The first two principal components PC1 (eigenvalue 5.37) and PC2 (eigenvalue 2.79) explained a large

1159 portion (33.55 and 17.44%, respectively) of the total variance. The following three components PC3
1160 (eigenvalue 2.17), PC4 (eigenvalue 1.35) and PC5 (eigenvalue 1.06) accounted for 13.54, 8.43 and
1161 6.63% of total variance, respectively. Since the first two components taken together explained as
1162 much as 50.98% of the total variance, we focused on them (Table 3). Firstly, it is worth noting that
1163 PC1 was primarily weighed by either C-related functional variables (DOC, qM , R_{bas} , MBC and
1164 MBC/C_{org}) or N-related variables (PMN and N_t). It was also found that PC2 was primarily affected
1165 by one of the most dynamic N pools in soil: NH_4^+-N , which was also directly related to qCO_2 and
1166 qCO_2/C_{org} . On the other hand MBN was the only variable affecting PC3. Moreover, PC4 was
1167 weighed by C_{org} and pH. Whereas, in PC5 PMC was the only soil variable showing a loading factor
1168 close to the reference threshold value (0.60). In the ordination biplot of Factor 1 vs Factor 2, soil
1169 samples from the differing treatments appeared in most cases well separated at least in three main
1170 groups along the PC axis 1 (functional C variables and N-related properties): triticale
1171 monocropping, Nitouche - Triticale intercropping and, surprisingly, a rather broad group including
1172 all the other crop treatments plus the bare soil. On the other hand, the two leguminous monocrops
1173 were clearly separated along the PC axis 2 (Fig. 4A).

1174 The two first principal components PC1 (eigenvalue 5.21) and PC2 (eigenvalue 2.92) expressed a
1175 somewhat large portion (32.59 and 18.22%, respectively) of the total variance. The following three
1176 components PC3 (eigenvalue 2.04), PC4 (eigenvalue 1.46) and PC5 (eigenvalue 1.22) accounted
1177 for 12.77, 9.14 and 7.60% of total variance, respectively. Once again, we focused on the first two
1178 PCs as they explained as much as half of the variance (50.81%) (Table 4). PC1 was primarily
1179 weighed by either C-related functional variables (MBC, MBC/C_{org} , qCO_2/C_{org} , qCO_2 and DOC) or
1180 N-related variables (MBN, PMN and N_t). PC2 was primarily affected by some C-related functional
1181 variables (R_{bas} , qM and C_0) and $NO_3^- -N$. C_{org} was the only variable affecting PC3. EC was the only
1182 variable affecting PC4.. In the ordination biplot of Factor 1 vs Factor 2, soil samples from the
1183 amended microcosms were rather scattered onto the plot: the two intercropping combinations were
1184 closely associated, whereas the two leguminous monocrops were not. The bare soil was well

1185 separated from the other treatments. Noticeably, among the chemical and biochemical soil
1186 variables, NO_3^- -N and C (C_0) exerted a primary role in separating the treatments along the PC2 axis
1187 (Fig. 4B).

1188 3.6 ARISA analysis

1189 The molecular structure of the bacterial communities profiles were characterized by the number
1190 and length distribution of major bands which, in spite of treatments and residue levels, were
1191 observed in a fragment size range from 200 to 1000 bp, and showed a clear diversity between levels
1192 of residue. In particular, regardless of the growth stage, residues addition in soils appeared to
1193 enhance the difference in groups allowing the monocropped legumes and Triticale-based treatment
1194 to clearly group on separate clusters (~78%; Fig. 5). On the contrary, in the no-residue soils, the
1195 treatment-dependent communities did not clearly align on the endemic axis, not allowing the
1196 clusters to present a clear pattern. The only clear difference was between bare soil and other
1197 treatments, which showed a level of similarity of approximately 73%.

1198 3.7 Greenhouse gases (GHGs) emissions

1199 Nitrous oxide emissions from the amended treatments were lower in comparison to the unamended
1200 soils ($P < 0.001$). In the amended treatments, the emissions started to pick up after 60 days of the
1201 start of the experiment with the unplanted treatment having the highest emissions (81.25 g N_2O -N
1202 $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{ day}^{-1}$). In the unamended treatments, the emissions were higher ($P < 0.05$) in the Triticale
1203 monocrop and Triticale/Nitouche treatments including also the no plant treatment from 30 days
1204 after the seeding.

1205 The cumulative values of N_2O were higher in the unamended treatments at 82 days. The bare soil
1206 treatment had the highest emissions in both treatments (4319 and 1430 g N_2O -N ha^{-1} in unamended
1207 and amended, respectively). In the microcosms with crop, the Triticale/Nitouche treatment had the
1208 highest (3677 g N_2O -N ha^{-1}) and the Triticale/Zero 4 the lowest (356 g N_2O -N ha^{-1}) emissions in
1209 unamended soils ($P < 0.001$). In the amended treatments, the cumulative emissions were generally

1210 very low, and even showed consumption of N₂O (negative values) with similar patterns in the
1211 unamended soils (Triticale/Nitouche: 243 g N₂O-N ha⁻¹ and Triticale/Zero4: -550 g N₂O-N ha⁻¹)
1212 (Table 5). Below ground N₂O emissions showed a similar pattern between amendment levels during
1213 the experimental period. However, the concentration of N₂O was ten times greater from the no
1214 residue treatment in comparison with the residue ($P < 0.001$). The bare soil treatment had the
1215 highest average values (19.70 ppm and 1.95 ppm for the no residue and residue, respectively)
1216 followed by the Triticale/Nitouche treatment (2.56 and 1.30 ppm for the unamended and amended,
1217 respectively) (Table 5).

1218 Cumulative CO₂ emissions were highest in the Zero 4 treatment (2511 kg CO₂-C ha⁻¹) in
1219 unamended soils and the Nitouche (2790 kg CO₂-C ha⁻¹) under residue addition (Table 5). The bare
1220 soil treatment had the highest average belowground concentration of CO₂ in both residue treatments
1221 during the experimental period ($P < 0.001$) (Table 5). Methane emissions were low during the
1222 experimental period for both level of amendment without (Table 5).

1223 Emission intensities presented in this paper include the cumulative N₂O measurements (84 out of 97
1224 days) for the total biomass produced within this time providing an index of the effectiveness of
1225 mitigation. In the residue treatment, the Triticale/Zero4 had the lowest emission intensities of all the
1226 treatments (-393 g N₂O t biomass⁻¹). N₂O intensities were not significant different for the no residue
1227 treatment (Table 6).

1228 **4. Discussion**

1229 The results obtained from this study provide new insights into the interrelated effects of
1230 leguminous crops on the chemical and biochemical properties of soil and highlights the important
1231 differences in C and N cycling associated with pea-based intercropping and wheat residue
1232 incorporation.

1233 *4.1 Soil chemical properties*

1234 Even in simplified ecosystems such as microcosms, soil organic carbon can be considered one of

1235 the most important indicators of soil quality because of its important role in the maintenance of soil
1236 structure, microorganisms and nutrient cycling (Aalders *et al.*, 2009).

1237 Soil incorporation of wheat residues slightly reduced the total organic carbon (C_{org}), which
1238 appeared noticeable in the ANOVA analysis but resulted negligible impacts in the principal
1239 component analysis either with or without residue addition. Indeed, it could be anticipated that total
1240 soil organic matter, would not respond rapidly to environmental changes, unless major amendments
1241 are made (Powlson *et al.*, 1987). However, mixing occurring during the establishment of the
1242 experimental units was expected to alter soil C dynamic and enhance rates of soil organic matter
1243 degradation, thus leading to a so-called tillage effect (Linsler *et al.*, 2013; Tortorella and Gelsomino,
1244 2011). The observation that soils receiving residue inputs were associated with lower organic C and
1245 N pools would indicate that the addition of residues had stimulated the microbial populations and
1246 increased the decomposition of preexisting organic matter through a priming effect (Kuzyakov
1247 2002). This increased degradation activity not only influenced the carbon but also the nitrogen
1248 cycling, which is functionally interconnected in soil, and thus resulted in a more striking variation
1249 in N_t than in the C_{org} .

1250 Even if major changes in total organic carbon content may be difficult to detect over a short-term
1251 experiment (Haynes, 1999), the responses of more labile fractions of soil organic carbon, namely
1252 dissolved organic carbon (DOC), are much more sensitive to soil management than total soil
1253 organic matter (Silveira, 2005). This fraction markedly influences soil chemical, biological and
1254 physical properties, as a primary source of mineralizable C, N, P, and S (Haynes, 2000) and it has
1255 been proposed as an indicator of the size of the available C pool to soil microorganisms (Boyer and
1256 Groffman, 1996).

1257 Through their exudates, plant root systems represents a major source of C flow entering the soil
1258 and stimulating the microbial process of immobilisation/release of soluble organic compounds
1259 forming the DOC pool in soil (Paterson, 2003; Paterson *et al.*, 2007). In fact, the quality and
1260 amount of rhizodeposition released from the legumes root systems could explain the high

1261 significance showed by the crop factor on the variability of this parameter in this study (Fustec *et*
1262 *al.*, 2010).

1263 The addition of plant residues and fresh organic compounds through rhizodepositions most often
1264 results in a net N immobilisation phase followed by a net re-mineralisation phase. In our study,
1265 lower amounts of inorganic N were observed in the treatment with wheat residue addition than in
1266 the corresponding unamended treatment. Wheat residue incorporation seems to have enhanced net
1267 N immobilization, although N mineralization was promoted in presence of the legume treatment at
1268 the end of the incubation period.

1269 The significant difference between amendment levels and crop presence shown suggests a
1270 different effect of faunal activity on residues. This could be due to increased available N in soil,
1271 which is consequently is not limiting for soil microorganisms responsible for degrading the
1272 residues. However, Knapp *et al.* (1983) reported conflicting evidence where some studies found
1273 mixed results from the effect of N availability on residue decomposition.

1274 Soil pH was fairly resilient to changes during the microcosm experiment (as clearly shown by
1275 PCA analysis) and this was actually not unexpected since it is not a highly variable parameter, and
1276 is often resilient also to short term perturbations (Table 3 and 4).

1277 4.2 Soil biochemical properties

1278 This study confirms, as previously suggested (Ndiaye *et al.*, 2000), that biological and
1279 biochemical parameters are more sensitive and can provide earlier measurements of changes
1280 produced by different soil and crop management than physical and chemical indicators. Most
1281 authors have studied the quantity and the activity of soil microbial biomass as indicator of changes
1282 driven by the addition of organic residue or cropping systems (Kaiser and Heinemeyer, 1993;
1283 Ndiaye *et al.*, 2000).

1284 Microbial biomass, is known to be one of the main drivers of nutrient cycling in soils, with
1285 microbial activity releasing essential nutrients to plants and microbial biomass is functionally and
1286 closely linked to the turnover of soil organic carbon (Jenkinson and Ladd, 1981). It is therefore of

1287 significance that the soil microbial biomass showed a greater increase, in all legume based
1288 treatments in the unamended soil. This increase, observed at the last sampling, could have been due
1289 to higher growth of microbial biomass, induced by the legume crop (Dinesh *et al.*, 2004). The
1290 statistically significant difference shown in the microbial biomass dynamics in response to the
1291 presence/absence of residues can depend on the decomposition rate of plant material and on the
1292 microbial immobilisation processes. In fact, the N assimilation requirements are determined by this
1293 carbon flow (Mary *et al.*, 1996). It is often assumed that N coming from the residue and from
1294 recycled biomass is mineralised before being assimilated by the newly-formed biomass. However, it
1295 has been shown that the soil microflora can directly assimilate significant amounts of organic N
1296 compounds coming from plant residues or from decaying biomass.

1297 Furthermore, the introduction of the residue amendment increased soil basal respiration as
1298 measured by cumulative CO₂ emissions. Although R_{bas} was not responsive to the individual
1299 treatments, it was markedly influenced by the interactions they determined with the amendment.
1300 This finding can suggest that in this soil the metabolic activity was primarily influenced by
1301 compositional changes in soil organic matter due an enhanced residue decomposition of the organic
1302 compounds released from plants roots.

1303 *4.3 Analysis of soil microbial community structures*

1304 The results obtained in this study confirm that the addition to the soil of crop residues can
1305 strongly modify the genetic structure of the community by stimulating particular populations;
1306 especially as the soil system is often substrate-limited as regards microbial growth (Nicolardot *et*
1307 *al.*, 2007). In fact, the molecular analysis revealed that the genetic structures of the bacterial
1308 population itself were significantly changed in response to the presence of legume sole crops or
1309 triticale, either in association with the legume or in monocropping, as a function of the
1310 presence/absence of wheat residue in the soils.

1311 *4.4 Greenhouse Gas emissions*

Our study demonstrated that there were lower N₂O emissions from legumes, which is consistent with our understanding that there are low levels of N₂O emission associated with the fixation process (Rochette *and* Janzen 2005). The results are also consistent with those of Pappa *et al* (2011) showing higher emissions from the pea cultivar Nitouche both as a monocrop and when grown as an intercrop. The Nitouche monocrop had up to six time higher emissions (434 g ha⁻¹) than the monocrop Zero 4 (71 g ha⁻¹) in the amended treatment and twice in the unamended (749 and 374 g ha⁻¹ for Nitouche and Zero 4, respectively). However, there was no significant difference between the intercropping treatments. Intriguingly these higher emissions were observed in the absence of wheat residue additions, and did not appear to be associated with elevated concentrations of DOC. The denitrification processes driven by the availability of oxidisable carbon, which is used as a terminal electron acceptor in the respiratory process. Therefore, the absence of higher levels of DOC in the legumes was elevated emissions of N₂O raises the possibility that the carbon was being supplied by the legume itself. Support for this hypothesis would be provided by higher soil respiration rates measured from Nitouche, even in the absence of acid plant residues and as indicated in differences in microbial activity shown by the ARISA analysis. There is also a growing body of evidence indicating that differences in rhizodeposition associated with different crop cultivars may drive differences in N₂O emissions (Gogoi & Baruah 2012; Sey *et al.* 2010)

Plant species and combinations of species offer significant opportunities to modify soil derived N₂O emissions. If differential rates of rhizodeposition are able to alter denitrification rates, then selecting specific legume cultivars with low rates of deposition in combination with cereals may therefore provide a novel opportunity for the mitigation of N₂O emissions. It is possible that the mechanisms underlying these differences would be associated either with an improved capacity of certain legume cultivars to compete more efficiently for soil N. Alternatively there may be an interaction between the legume and soil microbial community that reduces N₂O emission (possibly by promoting increased rates of N immobilization). The choice of legume cultivar and species is therefore a key factor influencing the amount of N loss. A previous study (Pappa *et al.*, 2011) has

1338 shown that the cultivar Zero 4 has significant lower N loss by N₂O emissions and leaching and
1339 could therefore contribute to the development of agricultural systems with environmental benefits.
1340 Therefore having a better understanding of the varietal differences in selecting intercrops mixtures
1341 has a high potential to increase yields and contribute towards the developments of agricultural
1342 systems with environmental benefits.

1343 **5. Conclusions**

1344 Legumes are generally associated with lower emissions of N₂O than cereal crops. However,
1345 there is significant variability in emissions between different legume cultivars. In this study the
1346 higher emissions associated with Nitouche were generated in the absence of wheat residues, raising
1347 the possibility that this variation in emissions is driven by variations in carbon supplied from the
1348 legume root. The intercrop affect on microbial activity is also cultivar specific. This is indicated by
1349 differences in N₂O emissions observed from two pea cultivars when grown as intercrops, although
1350 differences in N₂O emission were not linked to differences in yield. The mechanism underlying
1351 these differences appears to be driven by the differences resulting from microbial activity, which in
1352 turn are likely to be linked to soil-plant carbon dynamics.

1353 Our research therefore highlights the importance of the cultivar choice in the sustainable
1354 agricultural systems. The addition of the residues affects the soil C pools and the N₂O emissions and
1355 shows clear differences between the two pea cultivars but also the intercropping combinations. The
1356 root development of pea monocrops was influenced by the residue addition but also the presence of
1357 cereal highlighting the complexity of such systems. The scale of these effects is highly sensitive to
1358 management and soil type. The growing need for environmental tests of the legume cultivars to
1359 understand further the mechanisms of the GHGs emissions is in high priority. Understanding the
1360 development of legume cultivar and the interactions taking place within legume/cereal intercrop has
1361 the potential to be a very useful management tool in the development of more sustainable
1362 agricultural systems and in mitigation of GHG from agriculture.

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1522 an organically managed long-term crop rotation experiment. *Org. Agric.* 1, 147-159.
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1528 **Table 1** – Chamber growth conditions during the 97-day experimental period were in accordance to
 1529 the 26-year average climatic data recorded between April and August in a Mediterranean
 1530 environment (Reggio Calabria, Southern Italy). The relative humidity was kept stable at 70%.
 1531 Lighting was produced by cool white fluorescent bulbs at an average intensity of 1160 lux.

Growth period (day)	Temperature (°C)		Photoperiod (h) Day/Night
	Day	Night	
0-20	18.2 ± 0.3	10.2 ± 0.3	6.5/17.5
21-40	23.4 ± 0.3	14.6 ± 0.2	8/16
41-60	28.0 ± 0.3	18.9 ± 0.3	9.5/14.5
61-80	30.6 ± 0.3	21.7 ± 0.2	10.5/13.5
81-97	31.2 ± 0.4	22.5 ± 0.2	9.5/14.5

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Table 2 – Soil pH, EC, organic C and total N in the soil (mean \pm SD, $n = 3$) was measured at the beginning and at the end of the experimental period. Symbols – and + represent absence or presence of amendment in soils. For each sampling time, different letters in the columns indicate significant differences among treatments (Tukey’s HSD test at $P < 0.05$). Significant effects due to treatment, amendment, time and their interactions on the variability of data (F -value from three-way ANOVA, treatment x amendment x time, with corresponding P values^a) are also shown at the bottom.

Treatment			pH	EC _{1:2} (dS m ⁻¹)	C _{org} (mg g ⁻¹)	N _t (mg g ⁻¹)
Pre-sowing	Nitouche	-	6.19 \pm 0.06	0.10 \pm 0.01	34.13 \pm 1.75	2.50 \pm 0.10
		+	6.24 \pm 0.07	0.11 \pm 0.01	29.94 \pm 5.34	2.33 \pm 0.29
	Zero4	-	6.17 \pm 0.04	0.11 \pm 0.01	34.13 \pm 1.75	2.50 \pm 0.10
		+	6.29 \pm 0.03	0.11 \pm 0.01	28.97 \pm 4.41	2.33 \pm 0.28
	Triticale	-	6.21 \pm 0.04	0.10 \pm 0.01	34.87 \pm 0.92	2.53 \pm 0.06
		+	6.23 \pm 0.06	0.11 \pm 0.01	30.07 \pm 5.48	2.50 \pm 0.20
	Triticale/Nitouche	-	6.18 \pm 0.04	0.10 \pm 0.01	34.40 \pm 0.26	2.53 \pm 0.06
		+	6.26 \pm 0.08	0.11 \pm 0.01	33.73 \pm 1.60	2.60 \pm 0.10
	Triticale/Zero4	-	6.19 \pm 0.06	0.10 \pm 0.01	33.83 \pm 1.24	2.50 \pm 0.10
		+	6.24 \pm 0.07	0.11 \pm 0.01	33.47 \pm 2.06	2.60 \pm 0.11
	Bare soil	-	6.21 \pm 0.04	0.11 \pm 0.01	34.27 \pm 1.76	2.53 \pm 0.12
		+	6.28 \pm 0.03	0.11 \pm 0.01	29.97 \pm 5.58	2.50 \pm 0.10
Harvest	Nitouche	-	6.31 \pm 0.04 ^a	0.11 \pm 0.01 ^{b,c}	36.36 \pm 4.56	2.15 \pm 0.02
		+	6.25 \pm 0.03	0.12 \pm 0.01 ^{a,b}	35.03 \pm 7.51	2.12 \pm 0.15
	Zero4	-	6.24 \pm 0.04 ^{a,b}	0.10 \pm 0.01 ^c	32.19 \pm 0.92	2.06 \pm 0.03
		+	6.27 \pm 0.04	0.12 \pm 0.02 ^b	37.54 \pm 3.51	2.07 \pm 0.01
	Triticale	-	6.18 \pm 0.03 ^{a,b}	0.13 \pm 0.01 ^a	30.32 \pm 1.37	2.08 \pm 0.06
		+	6.31 \pm 0.03	0.10 \pm 0.01 ^b	33.62 \pm 2.31	2.05 \pm 0.06
	Triticale/Nitouche	-	6.21 \pm 0.03 ^{a,b}	0.12 \pm 0.01 ^{a,b}	36.96 \pm 1.52	2.09 \pm 0.10
		+	6.30 \pm 0.03	0.11 \pm 0.01 ^b	28.12 \pm 2.12	1.87 \pm 0.09
	Triticale/Zero4	-	6.21 \pm 0.02 ^{a,b}	0.12 \pm 0.01 ^{a,b}	34.62 \pm 1.06	2.10 \pm 0.01
		+	6.28 \pm 0.07	0.10 \pm 0.01 ^b	30.58 \pm 2.05	1.96 \pm 0.19

		-	6.16 ± 0.01 ^b	0.10 ± 0.01 ^c	30.98 ± 0.43	2.09 ± 0.07
	Bare soil	+	6.29 ± 0.05	0.15 ± 0.01 ^a	28.89 ± 1.30	1.98 ± 0.32
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	Factor	df				
	Treatment (T)	5	1.866 ^{ns}	1.866 ^{ns}	1.172 ^{ns}	0.510 ^{ns}
	Amendment (A)	1	67.903 ^{***}	67.903 ^{***}	5.815 [*]	2.276 ^{ns}
	Time (Ti)	2	5.026 ^{**}	5.026 ^{**}	2.238 ^{ns}	121.046 ^{***}
	T x A	5	8.130 ^{***}	8.130 ^{***}	0.558 ^{ns}	0.146 ^{ns}
	T x Ti	10	1.350 ^{ns}	1.350 ^{ns}	1.571 ^{ns}	1.204 ^{ns}
	Ti x A	2	0.500 ^{ns}	0.500 ^{ns}	1.982 ^{ns}	16.213 ^{***}
	T x A x Ti	10	3.024 ^{**}	3.024 ^{**}	2.897 ^{**}	1.051 ^{ns}
	Error	72				

1540 ^a Levels of significance: * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$; ns: not significant.

1541 **Table 3** – Soil Principal component analysis (PCA) of 16 soil chemical and biochemical variables

1542 measured in the six experimental treatments (Nitouche, Zero4, Triticale, Nitouche - Triticale, Zero4

1543 - Triticale, Bare soil as in Materials and Methods) in the unamended soils during the 97-day

1544 microcosm experiment. PC loading variables (values $\geq |0.60|$ are in bold) and percent of total

1545 variance explained by the first five factors (eigenvalue >1) are reported. Soil variables are as

1546 described in Materials and Methods.

Soil variable	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4	PC5
PMN	-0.82	-0.32	-0.11	-0.06	-0.32
N _t	-0.82	-0.24	0.14	0.01	-0.13
R _{bas}	0.82	0.15	-0.39	-0.18	-0.23
MBC/C _{org}	0.80	-0.35	0.27	0.23	0.14
MBC	0.79	-0.34	0.34	0.11	0.14
qM	0.75	0.07	-0.54	0.11	-0.15
DOC	0.73	0.34	0.28	0.07	0.11
C ₀	0.58	-0.07	-0.34	-0.23	-0.60
NH ₄ ⁺ -N	-0.01	0.83	0.06	-0.23	-0.19
qCO ₂	-0.24	0.78	-0.14	0.26	0.17
qCO ₂ /C _{org}	-0.20	0.72	-0.27	0.37	0.13
MBN	0.37	0.01	0.70	0.12	-0.17

NO₃⁻-N	0.40	-0.45	-0.50	0.10	0.25
C_{org}	-0.01	0.13	0.49	-0.63	0.03
pH	0.09	0.15	0.45	0.60	-0.52
EC	0.48	0.44	0.17	-0.37	0.12
<i>Variance explained (%)</i>	<i>33.55</i>	<i>17.44</i>	<i>13.54</i>	<i>8.43</i>	<i>6.63</i>

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1549 **Table 4** – Principal component analysis (PCA) of 16 soil chemical and biochemical variables
 1550 measured in the six experimental treatments (Nitouche, Zero4, Triticale, Nitouche - Triticale, Zero4
 1551 - Triticale, Bare soil as in Materials and Methods) in the amended soils during the 97-day
 1552 microcosm experiment. PC loading variables (values $\geq |0.60|$ are in bold) and percent of total
 1553 variance explained by the first five factors (eigenvalue >1) are reported. Soil variables are as
 1554 described in Materials and Methods.

Soil variable	PC1	PC2	PC3	PC4	PC5
MBC	0.92	-0.19	-0.01	-0.04	0.25
MBC/ C _{org}	0.92	-0.18	-0.18	-0.05	0.16
qCO ₂ / C _{org}	-0.82	0.15	0.01	0.18	0.20
qCO ₂	-0.79	0.17	0.16	0.22	0.23
MBN	0.77	-0.27	-0.17	0.18	0.30
N _t	-0.77	-0.05	0.11	0.05	0.38
DOC	0.61	0.29	0.53	0.02	-0.07
PMN	-0.61	-0.28	-0.52	-0.26	0.26
R _{bas}	0.36	0.83	-0.22	0.15	0.07
C ₀	0.09	0.78	-0.32	0.17	0.35
NO ₃ ⁻ -N	-0.01	-0.71	-0.18	0.56	-0.13
qM	0.20	0.66	-0.59	0.06	-0.13
NH ₄ ⁺ -N	-0.21	0.53	0.39	-0.20	-0.41
C _{org}	0.18	0.17	0.68	0.19	0.56
EC	-0.01	0.06	0.03	0.91	-0.28
pH	0.13	-0.07	0.48	-0.06	-0.02
<i>Variance explained (%)</i>	<i>32.59</i>	<i>18.22</i>	<i>12.77</i>	<i>9.14</i>	<i>7.60</i>

1556 **Table 5** – Average above ground flux emissions ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) for the whole experimental period for N_2O , CO_2 and CH_4 followed by carbon dioxide
 1557 equivalent, expressed in t, and then average below ground flux emissions ($\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$) for the whole experimental period for N_2O , CO_2 and CH_4 . Symbols
 1558 – and + represent absence or presence of amendment in soils. Significant effects due to treatment, amendment and their interaction on the variability of
 1559 soil data (F -values from two-way ANOVA, treatment x amendment, with corresponding P values^b) are also shown at the bottom.

Treatment		Above ground			Below ground		
		N ₂ O	CO ₂	CH ₄	N ₂ O	CO ₂	CH ₄
Nitouche	-	0.39 ± 0.16 ^b	1620.34 ± 1022.89	2.10 ± 0.81	0.47 ± 0.04 ^b	2805.17 ± 639.15 ^b	2.34 ± 0.13
	+	0.38 ± 0.10	2253.45 ± 1608.46	2.10 ± 0.78	0.59 ± 0.12 ^b	5075.28 ± 701.74 ^b	2.17 ± 0.11 ^b
Zero4	-	0.33 ± 0.11 ^b	2076.57 ± 1869.64	2.07 ± 0.81	0.66 ± 0.11 ^b	4386.84 ± 719.72 ^b	2.00 ± 0.14
	+	0.34 ± 0.09	2219.74 ± 1795.18	2.06 ± 0.86	0.72 ± 0.15 ^b	7073.73 ± 992.48 ^b	2.05 ± 0.14 ^b
Triticale	-	0.59 ± 0.55 ^{a,b}	2077.48 ± 1704.66	2.12 ± 0.51	2.08 ± 1.00 ^b	3048.84 ± 447.91 ^b	2.12 ± 0.15
	+	0.37 ± 0.15	2156.48 ± 1722.16	2.14 ± 0.86	0.56 ± 0.08 ^b	10373.01 ± 1115.54 ^b	2.26 ± 0.09 ^b
Triticale/Nitouche	-	0.86 ± 0.38 ^a	1920.04 ± 1616.19	2.35 ± 0.67	2.56 ± 1.17 ^b	7799.00 ± 1167.89 ^b	2.10 ± 0.14
	+	0.30 ± 0.11	2243.43 ± 1870.47	2.05 ± 0.86	1.30 ± 0.42 ^{a,b}	7714.24 ± 1584.48 ^b	2.29 ± 0.09 ^b
Triticale/Zero4	-	0.38 ± 0.07 ^{a,b}	2054.57 ± 1878.98	2.11 ± 0.78	0.87 ± 0.33 ^b	3725.17 ± 415.45 ^b	2.23 ± 0.12
	+	0.36 ± 0.10	2388.89 ± 2103.67	2.07 ± 0.82	0.67 ± 0.14 ^b	7743.60 ± 683.45 ^b	2.18 ± 0.12 ^b
Bare soil	-	0.80 ± 0.33 ^{a,b}	1687.66 ± 1205.27	2.17 ± 0.73	19.70 ± 4.76 ^a	7907.47 ± 1193.37 ^a	2.31 ± 0.16
	+	0.36 ± 0.08	2389.69 ± 2266.00	2.14 ± 0.89	1.95 ± 0.37 ^a	17480.05 ± 1398.95 ^a	3.28 ± 0.37 ^a
Factor	df						
Treatment (T)	5	3.286 **	0.050 ns	0.062 ns	12.008 ***	14.550 ***	4.173 **
Amendment (A)	1	18.408 ***	1.064 ns	0.141 ns	13.033 **	44.209 ***	3.216 ns
T x A	5	4.116 **	0.083 ns	0.093 ns	9.221 ***	5.023 ***	2.374 *
Error	84						

1560 ^a Different letters in a column indicate significant differences among treatments (Tukey's test at $P < 0.05$). ^b Levels of significance: * $P < 0.05$; ** $P < 0.01$; *** $P < 0.001$; ns: not significant.

Table 6 – Emission intensities (total cumulative N₂O measurements divided by the total biomass for the whole experimental period), expressed in g per t of total biomass. Symbols – and + represent absence or presence of amendment in soils. Significant effects due to treatment, amendment and their interaction on the variability of soil data (*F*-values from two-way ANOVA, treatment x amendment, with corresponding *P* values^b) are also shown.

Treatment		Intensities		
		N ₂ O	CO ₂	CH ₄
Nitouche	-	0.04 ± 0.41	219.30 ± 302.67	171.22 ± 62.25
	+	0.01 ± 0.04	933.45 ± 258.87	143.11 ± 98.77
Zero4	-	0.92 ± 0.33	1066.66 ± 201.18	182.58 ± 153.10
	+	-0.02 ± 0.48	1119.81 ± 647.68	58.53 ± 175.01
Triticale	-	1.33 ± 0.84	898.48 ± 789.79	199.41 ± 310.07
	+	-0.11 ± 0.36	1159.32 ± 256.00	462.84 ± 691.76
Triticale/Nitouche	-	0.68 ± 1.15	774.83 ± 1465.21	166.11 ± 167.84
	+	0.24 ± 0.35	2104.40 ± 1861.08	543.02 ± 879.48
Triticale/Zero4	-	0.18 ± 0.40	846.15 ± 47.80	355.79 ± 44.58
	+	-0.30 ± 0.31	1492.26 ± 1035.41	180.94 ± 409.14
Factor	df			
Treatment (T)	4	1,754 ^{ns}	0,603 ^{ns}	0,566 ^{ns}
Amendment (A)	1	8,884 ^{**}	2,008 ^{ns}	0,098 ^{ns}
T x A	4	2,463 ^{ns}	0,219 ^{ns}	0,462 ^{ns}
Error	18			

^a Different letters in a column indicate significant differences among treatments (Tukey's test at *P* < 0.05).

^b Levels of significance: * *P* < 0.05; ** *P* < 0.01; *** *P* < 0.001; ns: not significant.

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1571 **Figure captions**

1572 **Fig. 1.** Changes in soil dissolved organic C (DOC), basal respiration (R_{bas}), potential
1573 mineralisable C (C_0) and microbial biomass C (MBC) (mean \pm SD, $n=3$) in unamended (left)
1574 and amended (right) microcosm soils at three sampling times (0, 62 and 97 DAS) over the 97-
1575 day experimental period for the six treatments: Nitouche, Zero4, Triticale, Triticale-Nitouche,
1576 Triticale-Zero4, bare soil.

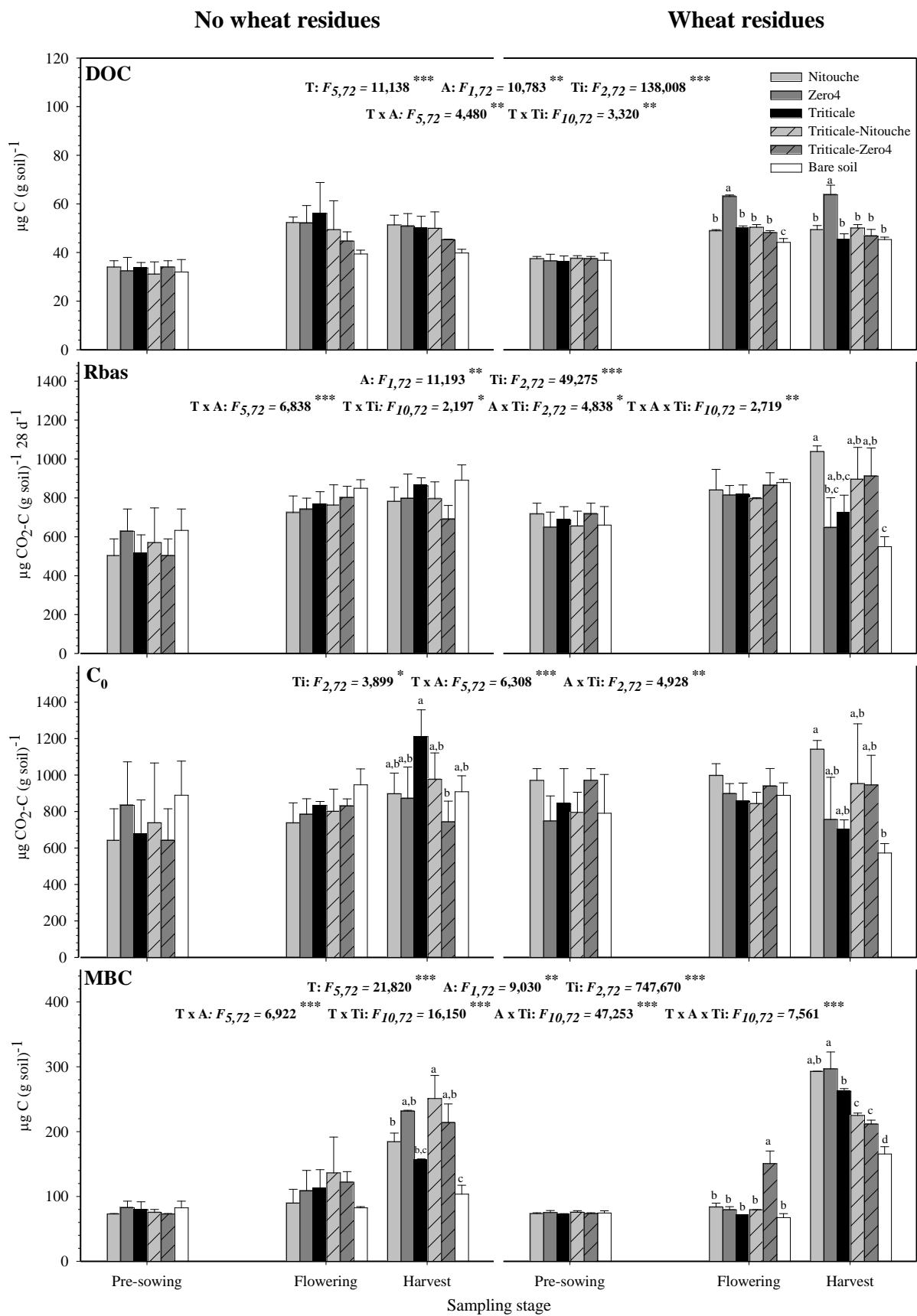
1577 **Fig. 2.** Changes in KCl-extractable ammonium-N (NH_4^+ -N), KCl-extractable nitrate-N (NO_3^- -
1578 N), potential mineralisable N (PMN) and microbial biomass N (MBN) (mean \pm SD, $n=3$) in
1579 unamended (left) and amended (right) microcosm soils at three sampling times (0, 62 and 97
1580 DAS) over the 97-day experimental period. Treatments are as in Fig. 1.

1581 **Fig. 3.** Changes in mineralization coefficient (qM), metabolic quotient ($q\text{CO}_2$), $q\text{CO}_2/C_{\text{org}}$
1582 ratio and microbial quotient ($\text{MBC}/C_{\text{org}}$) (mean \pm SD, $n=3$) in unamended (left) and
1583 amended (right) microcosm soils at three sampling times (0, 62 and 97 DAS) over the 97-day
1584 experimental period. Treatments are as in Fig. 1.

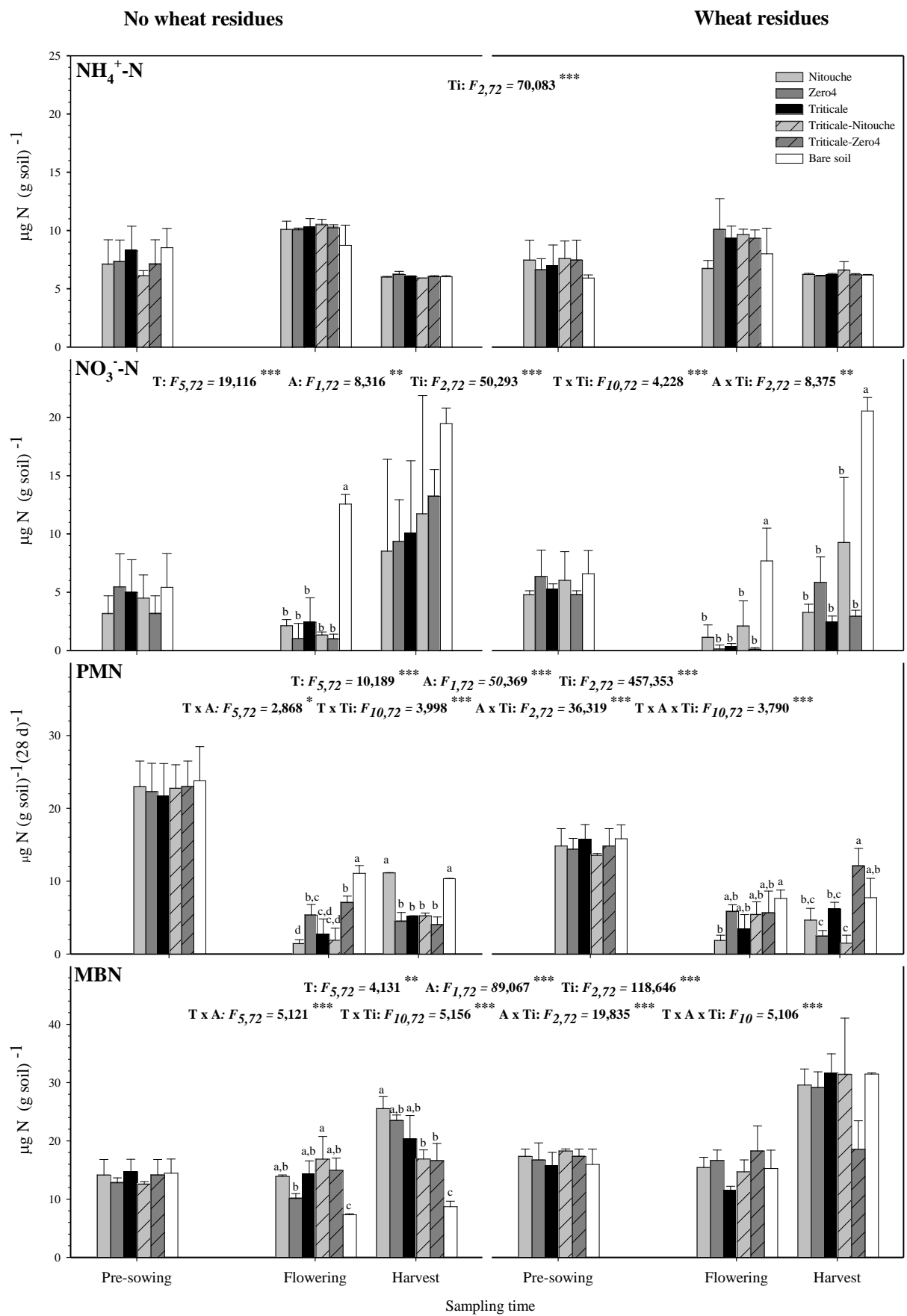
1585 **Fig. 4.** PCA ordination biplot (PC1 vs PC2) of 16 soil chemical and biochemical variables
1586 (loadings, see Materials and Methods) measured in the six experimental treatments (Nitouche,
1587 Zero4, Triticale, Triticale-Nitouche, Triticale-Zero4, bare soil as in Materials and Methods)
1588 (scores) at three sampling times (pre-sowing, flowering, harvest) in the unamended (A) and
1589 the amended soils (B) during the 97-day microcosm experiment. The biplot has the same
1590 origin for scores and loadings.

1591 **Fig. 5.** Hierarchical classification (Pearson's similarity coefficient, Ward's clustering method)
1592 of banding patterns generated by ARISA of PCR-amplified 16S rRNA gene-coding fragments
1593 from soil-extracted bacterial DNA from no-residue (A) and residue (B) added microcosms at

1594 two sampling times (62 and 97 DAS) over the 97-day experimental period. Treatments are as
1595 in Fig. 1. Each bar averages three microcosm replicates. Scale bar (0–100) indicates the
1596 similarity level.
1597

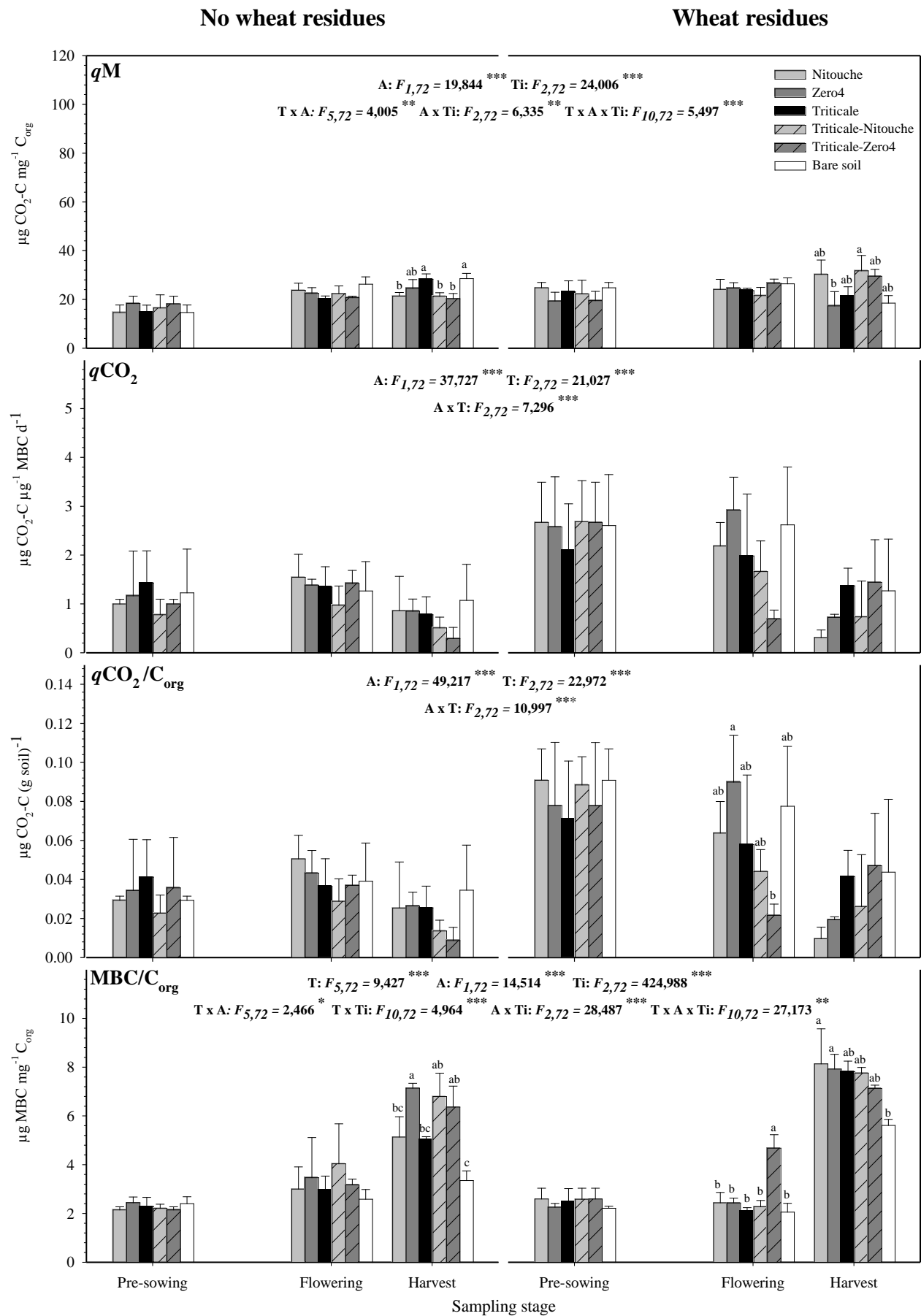


1600 **Figure 2 (N pools)**



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1606 **Figure 4 (PCA analysis)**

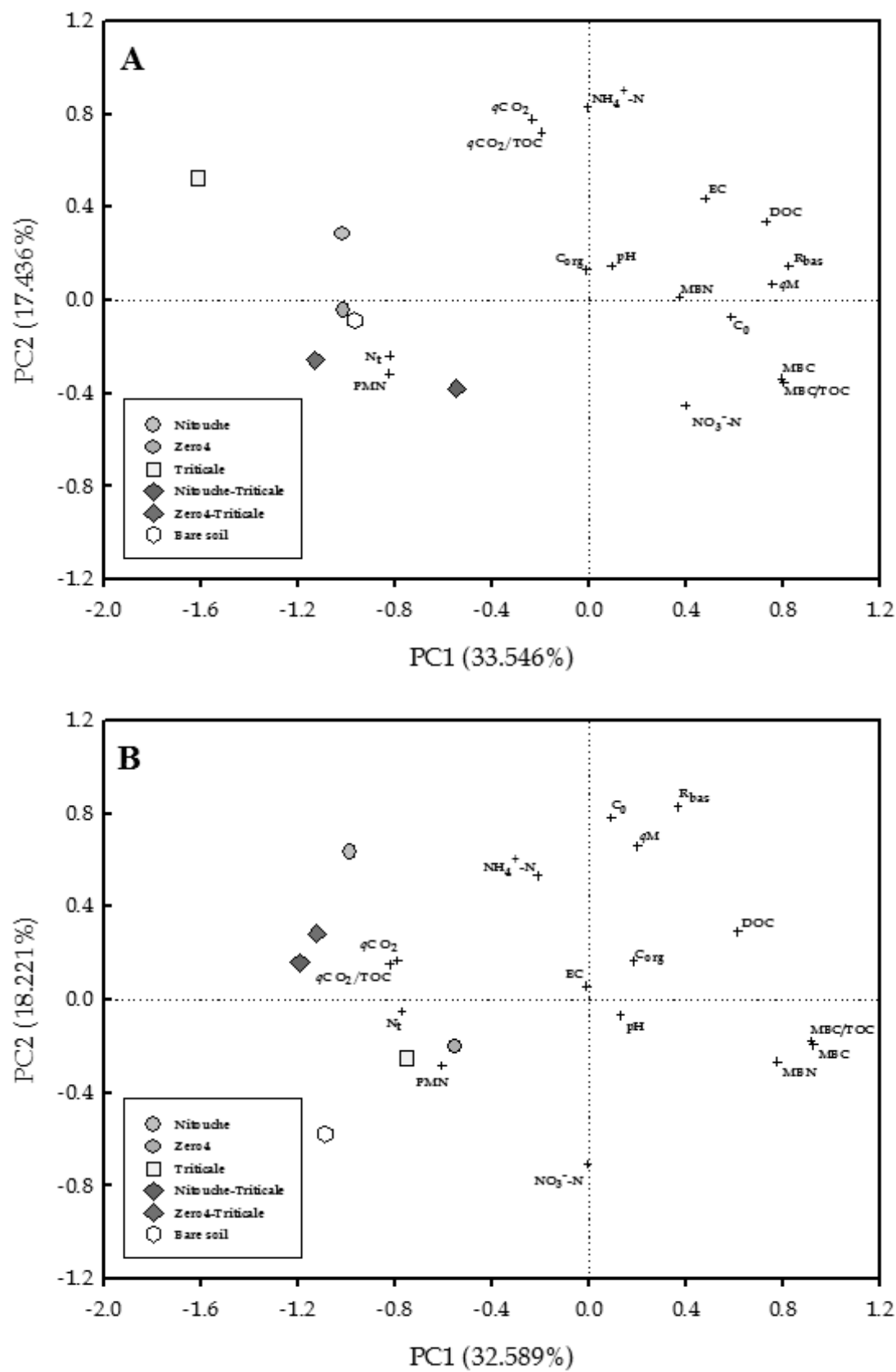


Figure 5 (ARISA analysis)

